

R2RW

**Background Considerations for the
Development of a Gender Strategy
in the Great River and Rio Grande
Watershed of Jamaica**



Ridge to Reef Watershed Project

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BACKGROUND CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A GENDER STRATEGY IN THE GREAT RIVER AND RIO GRANDE WATERSHED OF JAMAICA

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FOREWORD

The Ridge to Reef Watershed (R2RW) Project is a five year joint initiative of the Government of Jamaica and USAID. The project's main goal is to encourage sustainable natural resource use in two critical watersheds: the Rio Grande Watershed in Portland and the Great River Watershed in the western part of the island.

The Planning Institute of Jamaica has recently developed a new Gender Equity Mechanism as a means to encourage all projects to integrate gender considerations into their activities. As an official GOJ project, therefore, the R2RW too will need to show how it has addressed gender considerations in its programmes and activities.

This present report is not a gender strategy, but an overview of the key gender issues, factors and opportunities that the project will need to consider as part of its strategic planning activities. Specific gender strategies are to be developed with the partners once the project's activities have been fully determined.

The report has thus been prepared as a background document for USAID, the project team and potential project partners to be involved in the project's strategic action planning processes. It discusses some of the present gender realities related to sustainable resource use in Jamaica today. "Need to know" gender terminology is also provided.

Most importantly though, the report attempts to address and balance the following important realities for consideration:

1. The R2RW is not a "gender project", but a watershed management project. Therefore, its gender approach must be focussed on the project's specific mandate which is ultimately to encourage more sustainable use of watershed resources, particularly at the local upper watershed level (rural communities and farm households);
2. However, this mandate must include a recognition that persons, even those within the same household, do not necessarily use natural resources in the same way. Efforts to encourage sustainable resource use must therefore address these differences, which include gender differences;
3. Furthermore, in its efforts the project cannot promote sustainable resource use at the expense of one set of resource users over another, even unintentionally. A gender approach is needed to ensure that project activities do not inadvertently pose adverse implications for some persons.
4. Finally, because R2RW is to work through strategic partners to achieve practical outcomes at the local level, it must acknowledge the differing capacities of its local partners to implement gender sensitive approaches. Therefore, while the project is not a "gender project", nor does it have a mandate to insist that its partners institutionalize gender considerations in all of their activities, it does need to ensure that its partners incorporate gender sensitive approaches in those activities to be undertaken with R2RW. Gender training may therefore be needed as some partners are presently better equipped than others.

In examining these factors, the report has also attempted to identify opportunities for collaboration and cooperation with other agencies and projects so as to deal with gender issues that are beyond the mandate of R2RW, but which are nevertheless likely to impact on its own activities to consider gender implications.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

4H	Jamaica 4H Program (Youth in Agriculture)
BPFA	Beijing Platform for Action
BWA	Bureau of Women's Affairs
CASE	College of Agriculture, Science and Education
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CBO	Community Based Organisation
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
EE&C	Environmental Education and Communication
EFJ	Environmental Foundation of Jamaica
ENACT	Environmental Action Programme (CIDA and NRCA/GOJ)
ENGOS	Environmental Non-Governmental Organisation
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations
FD	Forestry Department
FHH	Female Headed Households
GAD	Gender and Development
GEM	Gender Equity Instrument
GreenCOM	Environmental Education and Communication Project, USAID
IICA	Inter-American Institute for Co-operation on Agriculture
IK	Indigenous Knowledge
IOJ	Institute of Jamaica
IPC	Intellectual Property Rights
JAMAL	Jamaica Movement for Advancement in Literacy
JCDT	Jamaica Conservation and Development Trust
JIS	Jamaica Information Service
JSDN	Jamaica Sustainable Development Network
MHH	Male Headed Households
MOA	Ministry of Agriculture
NECC	National Environmental Communications Campaign
NEEAP	National Environmental Education Action Plan
NEEC	National Environmental Education Committee
NRCA	Natural Resources Conservation Authority
OPM	Office of the Prime Minister
PACDC	Parish Association of Community Development Committees
PDC	Parish Development Committee
PEPA	Portland Environmental Protection Agency
PTA	Parent-Teacher Associations
R2RW	Ridge to Reef Watershed Project
RADA	Rural Agricultural Development Authority
RWN	Rural Women's Network (IICA)
SDC	Social Development Commission
SDP	Sustainable Development Planning (ENACT)
SEP	Schools Environment Program
SRC	Scientific Research Council
TFT	Trees for Tomorrow
TORS	Terms of Reference
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNEP	United Nations Development Program
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WID	Women in Development

1. PRELIMINARY FRAMEWORK TOWARDS A GENDER STRATEGY RIDGE TO REEF WATERSHED PROJECT (R2RW)

1.1 Introduction

The importance of considering gender factors in development projects is increasingly being recognized worldwide. Indeed, the recent evaluation of USAID S02 environmental projects made the following recommendations for Jamaica's country programme:

Gender issues should be considered in the design and implementation of all programs in the S02 portfolio.¹

This present report has been prepared as a "think piece" to inform USAID and the R2RW project team, (as well as potential strategic partners) on current realities related to gender and natural resource management in Jamaica. One of the project's activities in its first year will be to develop gender strategies for each watershed. The document here is thus presented as a background paper to facilitate the later process of developing relevant gender strategies and gender activities with strategic partners.

The specific terms of reference for the report were as follows:

The report includes information on the following:

- "Need to Know" definitions related to gender
- A summary of current thinking related to gender and natural resource management in the Caribbean and elsewhere, particularly the relationship among environmental issues and gender issues
- Some preliminary recommendations for possible project activities.

In order to focus the discussion on the most important factors for R2RW, answers to the following questions are presented in the report:

1. What is the state of the current "gender discourse" in Jamaica today?
2. Why are **gender realities** important for R2RW?
3. What **critical gender issues** and realities are related to both watersheds (a contextual analysis)?
4. What is the relevance of the **Gender Equity Mechanism** of the PIOJ and its impact on R2RW?
5. What has **already been done** given the existence of the ENACT's Gender Strategy and the new Draft Gender Strategy of the Forestry Department?
6. What possible **partnership** arrangements with ENACT, TFT/FD and the IICA's Rural Women's Network might exist?

¹ Evaluation of USAID Jamaica's Environmental Program, December 18th, 2000.

7. What are some of the first, practical and doable steps that the project should take in developing a gender strategy for each watershed?

1.2 Stakeholder Considerations

The R2RW team recognizes that gender considerations will cut across all three project components. Before beginning any discussion on gender and its implications for R2RW, it is therefore first important to note who the key stakeholders (and potential project partners) that the project will be working with actually are as these are the entities for whom gender factors will be relevant. It is also important to note who are the “primary” stakeholders and who are “secondary.” The project’s results will be evaluated against the activities of primary stakeholders, but secondary stakeholders will be the “strategic partners” that the project will need to work with.

CR 1: Working with local organisations to identify and promote sustainable environmental management practices.

Primary Stakeholders: farm households, community leaders, youth, natural resource users, CBOs

Secondary Stakeholders: RADA, FD officers, NRCA officers, Coffee Board (and other agricultural commodity boards), CASE, JCDDT, Montego Bay Marine Park, SDC, BWA, PEPA, PDC, PACDCs, etc.

CR 2: Identify existing incentives and constraints affecting the enforcement of selected existing environmental regulations

Primary Stakeholders: farm households, community leaders, youth, natural resource users, CBOs, police youth clubs, junior rangers, private sector, Coffee Board and other agricultural commodity boards

Secondary Stakeholders: Police, judiciary, parish councils, government services, RADA, FD officers, NRCA officers, JCDDT, Montego Bay Marine Park, ENGOs, Chambers of Commerce

CR 3: Enhance the capacity of stakeholder organisations to implement effective watershed management programs

Primary Stakeholders: CBOs, SDC, PDC, PACDC, ENGOs, etc.

Secondary Stakeholders: NRCA, FD, RADA, etc.

All of the above stakeholders will need to be brought into the design of an appropriate gender strategy for each watershed.

1.3 Why is gender important to consider in development projects, such as the R2RW project?

It is acknowledged that the R2RW project is not a “gender project”, but a watershed management project. As a result, the approach to be taken should be more one of “gender mainstreaming” wherein gender factors are considered as part of all project activities, rather than having discrete gender projects or components.

Besides the fact that is both USAID policy and also GOJ policy to consider gender factors in all projects, gender sensitivity helps to ensure that projects are, in fact, effective.

Gender analysis is important because “development” and resource management involves people. Ultimately, it is **people** who either manage or mismanage resources. Thus, because resource management, to a large degree is about people, gender factors are relevant. Development interventions do not impact on all people in the same way. People are different. Class, race, location, levels of education and a number of other factors all shape the ways in which **people** are different and the ways in which they may differently benefit or be disadvantaged by development interventions.

People’s differences can be looked at from the perspective of:

- Income (socio-economic status)
- Age
- Location (rural-urban)
- Race
- Culture
- Level of education
- Levels of decision-making power and social power
- Gender
- *Their use of natural resources....*
- And other factors.

1.4 “Gender” Does not Equal “Women”

In Jamaica to date, much of gender training and discussion around gender issues has emphasized the vulnerability of women in Jamaican society, but has perhaps under-estimated the vulnerability of other “at risk” groups, such as unemployed youth and marginalized males. Especially in light of the recent violent incidents involving our youth, it could also be argued that our young men are as disadvantaged and vulnerable as women have been in the past. Youth issues will be especially important if the project is to address the reasons why rural youth in particular may be contributing to environmental degradation either through ganja cultivation, illegal logging, or charcoal burning.

However, the neglect of the youth and marginalized males has had an unfortunate impact that the project will need to be aware of:

First, the equation of “gender” with “women” (whether intentional or not) has put off a number of both men and women who are needed to be involved in the process of addressing gender inequalities. R2RW will inherit some of this sentiment and will therefore need to make careful efforts to ensure that its discussions and efforts are inclusive. Steps to rectify some of the past misunderstandings may also be required with certain partners.

Secondly, and more importantly, the emphasis on women has meant that insufficient attention has been paid to strategies for involving youth and at risk males in many projects and programmes. R2RW cannot afford to make similar oversights in its own work.

2. SOME “NEED TO KNOW” USEFUL DEFINITIONS

Given the misunderstandings associated with the terms “gender” in Jamaica, it is therefore important at the outset of the project to agree on common terminology. As the evaluation that was completed of USAID’s SO2 projects recognized:

... “gender” pertains to both men and women. This is important to stress, since within the context of Jamaican society, gender is usually taken as pertaining exclusively to issues affecting women.

The term “**gender**” is used to distinguish between the different social roles of men and women and does not refer to their biology or sex. Earlier development initiatives used to refer to “Women and Development” or the WID approach, but later it was recognized that a WID approach alone was inadequate to deal with most development situations. The Gender and Development (GAD) approach emerged as a way to consider relationships among women and men.

The evaluation further acknowledged that:

Gender refers to the ways in which culture defines the rights and responsibilities of men and women and how these interact.

Gender analysis can help to effectively and efficiently target resource benefits and activities according to economic, political, and cultural realities and helps to anticipate impacts that projects may have on the people they are intended to serve.

At the same time, however, gender analysis reveals that while each gender may be disadvantaged in different ways, women have frequently been more disadvantaged than have men.

The concept of gender refers to women’s and men’s socially defined characteristics, which are shaped by historical, economic, religious, cultural and ethnic factors. As a result of gender characteristics, women and men have different experiences in life, different knowledge, perspectives and priorities. With the introduction of the concept of gender in development planning, recognition is given to the causes for and structures of women’s subordination in society, to the inequality between men and women and the power relations involved. Gender analysis emphasises the context in which (men and) women face their problems and stresses the need for social change and for empowering (men and) women in this process.²

The **ENACT’s Gender Strategy and Contextual Analysis** (1999) offers some further very useful definitions which are useful for examining. The key “need to know” terms that are used in this report are as follows:

- **Gender issues** arise when an instance of gender inequality is recognised as undesirable or unjust.
- **Gender equality** means that there is no discrimination on the grounds of a person’s sex in the allocation of resources and benefits, in access to services, under the law, and so forth. Gender equality may be measured in terms of whether there is equality of opportunity or equality of results.
- **Gender equity** is an approach directed towards ensuring that development and national policies leave neither women nor men worse off economically or in terms of social responsibility than before the intervention. This approach tries to make equity visible by using indicators which reveal the human cost of many activities - provision of water, fuel etc.

² Brouwers, 1993. In IDB’s Wid Policy Revisted. Women in Development: Progress and Perspectives for The Future – A Report to the Board of Directors on the Implementation of the WID Action Plan, 1993-4.

- **Gender gap:** This is the term used to describe and sometimes measure the disparity, difference/ inequality between men and women in the exercise of their roles, rights and responsibilities and the accretion of rewards.
- **Practical gender needs** are concerned with inadequacies in living conditions such as water provision, health care, and employment. Practical needs relate to the day-to-day responsibilities and livelihood activities people employ. Many development initiatives remain focused on practical gender needs without addressing strategic needs. Addressing practical needs are usually short-term project interventions.
- **Strategic gender needs** on the other hand, relate to gender divisions of labour, power and control and include issues like legal rights, domestic violence, equal wages, and reproductive rights. Meeting strategic gender needs helps people achieve greater equality by changing existing roles and challenging subordinate position (Moser, 1993). Addressing strategic gender needs usually involves a longer-term approach that includes the building of partnerships, institutional alliances and changed attitudes and values.
- **Gender mainstreaming** entails addressing gender issues in a systemic manner in all policies projects and programs at all stages of policy development and project activity cycles. It means introducing gender concepts into management structures and approaches, thus transforming the process of development decision-making and implementation.

3. CONTEXTUAL ANALYSIS

3.1 POVERTY AND NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

In its Life of Project Strategy and First Annual Work Plan, R2RW recognizes that sustainable resource management is a process that involves, economic, social and environmental considerations. Included in its understanding of the social factors related to sustainable development are the influences of poverty, gender considerations, participation and institutional coordination (LOPS and FAWP, p.11).

3.1.1 *The Problem of Defining Poverty*

Any discussion on gender and the environment will not be effective without addressing poverty as this issue is often assumed to be one of the key factors that contribute to environmental degradation. However, different definitions of poverty currently exist and there is little agreement on what “poverty” actually is. The The PIOJ’s Poverty Map of Jamaica, for example, which was completed in 1996 using 1991 census data, offers the crudest indicators for poverty levels:

1. Type of water supply (percentage piped into dwelling)
2. Toilet facilities (percentage of households without exclusive use of a water closet)
3. Level of unemployment (percentage of labour force between 13-29 unemployed)
4. Level of education (percentage of 14-29 age group with only primary education)
5. Level of overcrowding, density in housing

However, PIOJ’s Poverty Map has been criticized for not addressing qualitative indicators related to access and control over resources. Nor does it address questions of how persons perceive themselves and their own quality of life. Qualitative indicators are also important to consider and are related to social capital (Is there community support for members? Do people get along well together? Are they isolated? Is there collaboration and community participation in local activities?) The UNDP’s Gender Development Index (GDI), for example, offers the following quantitative

indicators and/or terms for assessing poverty and gender differences that the project should consider:

Quantitative “Equality” Indicators

Poverty – control over resources as represented by per capita income

Education – knowledge (educational access, educational attainment)

Health – essential health requirements by sex

Nutrition – food consumption and nutrition requirement by sex and age

Housing – access to housing by sex

Governance – legal rights to political participation and access to decision-making in crucial spheres

The GDI also looks at the structural or macro level indicators that contribute to poverty and inequality and which may constitute strategic gender needs:

- Structural inequalities – indicated by existing gender inequalities
- Social Environment factors as indicated by cultural and social indicators that limit freedom of movement and security
- Indices that compare rural/urban differences in employment and access to services or credit
- Patriarchal structures and social indicators that militate against gender equality

Regardless of which indicators are used however, in Jamaica, when one looks at “who” is poor, the answer is usually rural, female-headed households and rural youth. The project will therefore need to be mindful of realities associated with rural poverty as they relate to inappropriate resource use. A closer look at some of the data associated with rural poverty in the watersheds is now provided.

3.2 Gender Differences and Rural Poverty in the Watersheds

Notwithstanding the limitations associated with the Poverty Map (PM) and its lack of qualitative indicators, this present background paper has utilised PM data to provide a quick and crude snapshot of gender realities in the watershed as it is the most readily available.

As the PM data in Table 1 in show that some of island’s the poorest communities fall within, or near to, the two watershed areas. Table 2 shows the percentage of households in poverty in each parish and indicates that watershed communities in Westmoreland may be twice as poor as those in Hanover and more than three times as poor as those in St. James, and roughly 35% poorer than those in Portland.

Table 3 shows that for Jamaica as a whole, unemployment is greater in rural areas, and that more rural women than men are unemployed. It also indicates that more rural women than men are outside the formal work force. A gender sensitive approach to sub-projects that might focus on employment generation would therefore need to consider these factors.

Among households in poverty, as shown in Table 4, the percentage of income spent on food is roughly equal for female-headed households and male headed households (48.4 percent and 50.6 percent respectively), but FHHs have only 86% of the income that MHHs do to begin with. As a result, FHHs are likely to be less nourished. Project efforts to support food production and/or income generation may be able to help alleviate this practical gender need.

Tables 5&6 further indicate that FHHs, which are poorer, are also usually composed of more persons, and therefore, there are more economic demands placed on these household heads. Households with three or more members and five or more members were likely to be headed by females (66.8 percent compared to 51.1 % and 31.4% and 24.4% respectively). There are also usually greater numbers of older persons and children (36.4%) in rural areas and it is usually women have to care for these people as the age dependency ratio in rural areas (at 85% per 100) indicates.

Table 7 and 8 show that in 1991 poorest households are most likely to rely on rivers, lakes, streams or ponds for their domestic water supply. In rural areas, the distance to available water supply more than 1000 yards for at least 28.8 percent of the population. This data thus suggests that the poorer households, which are more likely to be FHH, are more dependent on natural sources of water than are other households and that they also spend quite a bit of time collecting or fetching water for their household needs.

Despite the fact that poor households are more dependent on natural water sources, Table 9 shows that the majority of households in the watershed areas in 1991 did have reasonable access to a potable water supply and were not likely to be relying on watershed streams and rivers. Only the poorer households would have been likely to do so.

Table 10 & 11 show that pit latrines (which are an indicator of poverty according to the PM) and/or absorption pits are still the most widely available type of toilet facility island wide, and are highest in use among the poorest households, the majority of which are in rural FHHs.

Overall, the above data shows that poorer households are more likely to be headed by women. These households are larger in size and are more likely to rely on natural resources for their household survival.

3.2.1 Gender and Agricultural Land Tenure

Table 12 shows the majority of farmers in Jamaica are men, yet for both men and women farmers, the majority farm less than 5 hectares of land. However, proportionately far more women than men are landless. In a Jamaican-wide study done by IICA³ on rural women food producers, only 17.3% women reported owning the land on which they farmed and the large majority, regardless of union status, did not have their names on the titles or contracts for the lands they operated. Very few women were beneficiaries of inherited land. Table 12 further shows that young male farmers have much smaller acreages than do older men in the watershed parishes, but they still farm more acreage than women. However, with respect to land tenure, therefore, women and youth are much more disadvantaged.

Table 13 shows that family land tenure is the main form of farm tenure for holders of less than 0.4 hectares and is also high for those farming up to less than 4.0. hectares. The majority of family land tenure is maintained by women, rather than men, who are more likely to own land outright.

3.2.2 Credit and Marketing

In terms of access to credit, in the IICA report, only a mere five percent of women claimed to have received loans for farming operations in 1996. There, revenue from previous sales was the main source of financing for farming operations. This is contrasted with the fact that as many as 67% of the farm households had applied for credit in the three years prior to 1996.

³ Innerarity, Faith. 1996. Women Food Producers in Jamaica: Assessment and Policies. Program for the Analysis of Agricultural Policies vis-a-vis Women Food Producers in the Andean Region, The Southern Cone and the Caribbean. Inter-American Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture and Inter-American Development Bank. Kingston.

The gap between the number of women applying for loans and the number receiving is startling. Most women who applied for loans appear to have approached the commercial banks or the credit unions, whereas more of the men submitted their applications to the agricultural lending agencies.

Unfortunately, the overall number of small loans going to the agricultural sector as a whole is declining. The smallest number of loans by the ACB to the agro-processing sector, which is where most of the women are.

Women and youth in agricultural face difficulties in accessing credit because they lack collateral in the form of land titles. This will have implications for project activities that encourage more sustainable land husbandry methods, such as the planting of tree crops if credit is to be required. R2RW may seek to encourage creative approaches to lending for these two vulnerable groups.

Fortunately, credit to the micro-enterprise sector may be changing for the betterment of women since 1996. The latest ESSJ showed that some positive changes are taking place, compared to previous years at least with respect to the percentage of loans, but the size of the loan is not indicated as seen in Table 14 below.

With respect to marketing of agricultural produce, women are generally considered to be more involved in higglering than are men. However, if the findings of a 1997⁴ survey of women farmers involved in marketing in Eastern Jamaica, few have a proper “business” understanding of what is involved in agricultural production and marketing and therefore to not plan their production effectively. Indeed, both male and female farmers face this difficulty, but women – who are more involved in the selling of produce, particularly need to be more formally educated in this regard.

⁴ Evering-Lawrence, Karlene. 1997. A Survey of the Socio-Economic Conditions of Women Farmers at the Marketplace in Eastern Jamaica. OXFAM, Kingston.

<p>Table 14</p> <p>Percentage Breakdown of MSE Loans by Sex 1999: Compiled from ESSJ 1999 Data</p>				
Source of Credit	Percentage loans disbursed Males		Percentage loans disbursed Females	
	1998	1999	1998	1999
Development Options Limited/Eagle Merchant Bank – agents for the GOJ/Gon MEP	37.9	Project closed	62.1	Project closed
GOJ/EU Credit Scheme	Not started	58.0	Not started	42.0
Workers' Bank Micro-Finance Unit	30.0	N/a	70.0	N/a
Credit Organisation for Pre-micro Enterprises (COPE) Limited (under MicroFIN)	22.2	22.5	77.8	77.5
Agricultural Credit Bank	14.4	85.6 mainly in manufacturing	53.9 (mainly in agricultural retailing)	46.1
City of Kingston Co-operative Credit Union	47.9	40.0	52.1	60.0
Micro-Investment Development Agency (MIDA) – Community Development Fund Projects	52.0 (mainly in agriculture)	51.5	48.0 (service sector)	48.5
Union Bank Micro-Finance Unit	N/A	25.8	N/A	74.2
Self-Start Fund	47.6	46.0	52.4	54.0
National Development Foundation of Jamaica (NDFJ) – Small Loan Fund	10.8	10.0	89.2	90.0
National Development Foundation of Jamaica (NDFJ) – Traditional Credit Facility	40.00	N/a	60.0	N/A

3.2.3 Gender and Decision-Making

As mentioned, the R2RW is likely to be partially evaluated to the extent that it incorporates considerations outlined in the Gender Equity Mechanism (GEM). One of the factors about which the GEM is most concerned is the quality of women's and men's involvement in decision-making. The GEM will be interested to know if the project has made a difference in how men and women are involved in decision-making about natural resource use. Are they more involved, or less involved? Has authority in decision-making shifted from one person to another? Who is participating in decisions that affect wider community issues related to natural resource use? And so forth. As a result, R2RW needs to have an understanding of what the current patterns in such decision-making may be.

According to the IICA's Women Food Producers survey, rural women in Jamaica generally show a high level of participation in production and management decision-making on the farm. The situation may also be the case in the rural households that R2RW will also be working with.

In the IICA report, participation was highest in the areas relating to the marketing of produce with 77% stating that they independently determined what products should be marketed. 71% of rural women reported making the decision on the market outlet and 67% determining the sale price. Their level of participation was also significantly high in the respect of decisions on crops to be planted 71% (independently); production inputs (63%, and hiring of labour 55%). Of importance also, is the fact that over 70% indicated they independently decided on the use of profits from the farming enterprise.

Therefore, if R2RW is going to focus some of its energies on agricultural marketing strategies, these patterns are important to note.

The areas in the IICA survey in which women recorded the lowest level of involvement in decision-making included the use of loans and purchase of machinery and equipment. Only 23% and 31% of women respectively reported that they ever made such decisions independently. Thus, if R2RW is going to encourage farm households to take out loans for such inputs, they would more likely involve men rather than women.

Participation in farmer/community organizations by women (Table 15) was limited mainly to church activities which in turn reflects the fact that Sunday was reported to be the day on which they had the most leisure time. A significant number also reported involvement in Parent Teacher Association (PTA). Thus, if the project is going to attempt to involve women, these are the best organizations to target.

It is quite likely that the involvement of youth in community decision making is almost non-existent. To involve rural youth effectively, rather than target 4H clubs only, the project is more likely going to have to target sports clubs and youth clubs.

<p style="text-align: center;">Table 15</p> <p style="text-align: center;">IICA's Women Food Producers Survey</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Women's Participation in Productive/Community Organisation, Jamaica, 1993</p>					
Organization	Percentage of all Respondents	Level of Participation %			
		Not Stated	Often	Occasionally	Seldom
Sports Club	2.6	100	-	-	-
Social Club	2.6	-	50.0	50.0	-
Church Club	62.0	-	63.4	26.8	9.2
Farmer Group	2.0	-	66.0	-	33.0
Community Group	8.0	8.3	83.3	-	8.3
Parent/Teachers Association	32.0	2	43.7	41.7	12.6
Other	1.0	-	-	100	-

4. APPROPRIATE TECHNOLOGY AND PROJECT INTERVENTIONS

As R2RW will be encouraging the adoption of best management practices or Targeted Appropriate Practices (TAPs), it will also need to review the proposed practices from a gender perspective in order to ensure that they are indeed gender sensitive as well as environmentally appropriate.

One of the key issues emerging from IICA's work, is that rural women, especially rural women food producers – need more gender sensitive technology. Most of the farming tools that exist, for instance, are woefully inadequate for both men and women farmers, but are especially difficult for women.

However, often technologies are seen to be “gender neutral” when in fact they are not. An example from another country may help to illustrate how practices, which may appear to be “appropriate” and gender neutral, may in fact have adverse implications:

In order to ensure that R2RW does not make a similar mistake, all of its interventions will need to be reviewed. The following questions are just some of those that need to be asked in the design and planning of particular interventions:

- Who is presently doing which tasks as they relate to the proposed intervention or TAP? What is the gender division of labour involved?
- Who has access to the resources required?
- Who has control over these resources?
- Who is now responsible for the domestic or reproductive tasks in the household?
- Will the proposed TAP require increase time and/or labour that will conflict with domestic responsibilities? If so, how will this new demand for labour and time be filled? Who in the household will fill this requirement? What supportive mechanisms may need to be put in place to ensure that conflicts do not arise (day care provisions, for example)?

Gender analysis will be required for each TAP that the project may consider, however, there are some technologies and interventions that are likely to make work easier for women. These are also those that are more environmentally friendly as well. These include:

1. Low input soil conservation techniques such as contouring, using an A-Frame, agro-forestry, cover cropping, green manure (in situ mulch), living hedgerows (which also bring in an income) and others.
2. Improved farming techniques, such as organic farming, Integrated Pest Management, crop rotation, and so forth.
3. Recycling of animal and agricultural wastes to produce
4. Biogas production
5. The introduction of simple and affordable mechanized tools
6. Solid waste management
7. Solar technologies and wind technologies to pump irrigation water and generate household energy
8. Water storage and harvesting for both irrigation and domestic use
9. Community laundry sites to encourage safe disposal of waste water
10. Improved latrines to promote environmentally sensitive sewage disposal and improve environmental health
11. Labour saving agro-processing tools such as local cassava graters, solar driers, and so forth.

In some instances, women themselves have come up with their own “inventions” in order to save labour and cost. These should be promoted and highlighted wherever possible.

5. NATURAL RESOURCE USE AND SURVIVAL STRATEGIES

The R2RW project will also need to consider gender differences in the use of natural, public resources in the watershed. Most often these resources are considered to be: water; timber, charcoal, and land. However, the use of natural resources is far more extensive than simply wood and water alone.

For example, it has also been shown that natural resource use is very much related to the survival strategies of the poor in particular. Studies completed in Jamaica indicate that the following informal strategies are most commonly employed by the poor for survival include:

- Higglings and street vending
- The drug trade
- Laundering of drug money
- Scavenging
- Rearing of animals
- Backyard gardens
- Raiding of fruit trees
- Charcoal production
- Backyard industries
- Roadside restaurants
- Hustling
- Services
- Stealing (tiefing)
- Sex-related services
- Collecting protection and operation fees and
- Starting churches or new religions.⁵

Of those above: higgling, the drug trade, animal rearing, raiding of fruit trees, charcoal production, backyard craft industries, scavenging and food services all have implications for natural resource use.

Practical and strategic needs are important to distinguish as they relate to survival strategies in Jamaica. The Jamaica Human Development Index (2000) report notes that when faced with severe economic constraints, the poor focus on their “practical” needs (or basic needs) first in order to survive for the present. Longer-term strategic needs that would ultimately help them to break the poverty cycle (such as getting a better education, saving for the future) are sacrificed in order to satisfy immediate needs. Thus poorer households may not identify with environmental concerns that are viewed as “long term” goals unless they clearly relate to the immediate needs that these households face.

One example might be borrowed from participants in a rural women’s forum sponsored by IICA⁶. At that event, women said that one of their most pressing needs was water:

Di coffee farmers farda up di mountain are blocking off wi water. Dem justa cut offa wi pipe and tek it fi di coffee. Oono can’t know how ita mek wi feel. It’s not only dat wid out water wi cyan cook, wi cyan wash di clothes. Wid out di water, wi jus feel bad! Yuh cyan feel lika human being. Yuh feel so dutty. Yuh nuh feel fi look fi work, even if yuh wan tuh. Yuh feel so wutless.

⁵ Spence, Trevor. 1998. “Survival Strategies by Communities in Jamaica” prepared for the Enhancing Civil Society Project, Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA).

⁶ Personal testimony, May 1999.

In this instance, clearly an environmental resource issue is also a personal, daily life issue that persons can fully resonate with.

Globally, many studies indicate that forests have provided essential resources during emergency periods such as floods, droughts and famines. In times of crop failure, they may also provide emergency food as well as products that can be gathered for sale. The same is true in Jamaica. Testimonies from people living near forests indicate that during difficult periods, poor families often supplement their income from forest foods, particularly with wild yam, yampie and wild banana. Farmers also value trees as insurance during difficult seasons and may be more prone to illegal harvesting during these times.⁷

While forest gathering activities are not restricted to the poor, they do depend on these activities to a greater extent. In times of crop failure, forest products can be sold for supplemental income. The types of products often derived from forests are:

- Foods – environmental stability and food availability
- Fodder from trees for animals
- Micro-enterprise: timber, gums, resins, wicker, craft, mulch, honey, tannins, dyes, insects, saps, soaps, poisons, fibres, bamboos and canes – enhancing of household income
- Firewood and charcoal
- Medicinal products
- Birding (hunting)
- Trees for Mortgage or collateral purposes.⁸

It is also important to note that many rural households may rely on forest resources for food and fodder as well. For example, discussions with members of the Maroon women's' group in Portland⁹, indicated that the following foods were regularly collected from the forest:

- Limba-yam (a type of wildyam)
- Ackee
- Star apple
- Rose apple
- Guava
- Ohteheti apple
- Thatch head (sort of heart of palm from the Thatch palm)
- Coconut
- Sweet sop
- Baba pumpkin (a sort of small cucumber)
- Hog berry and hog plum
- Annotto
- Castor oil nuts
- Tangerines
- Oranges

⁷ Falconer, Julia and J.E. Mike Arnold. "Forests, Trees and Household Food Security", Network Paper 7a, Winter 1988, ODI Notes, London.

⁸ Longhurst, Richard. "Household Food Security, Tree Planning and the Poor: The Case of Gujarat", Network Paper 5d, October 1987, ODI Notes, London.

⁹ Personal consultation in Millbank, Portland.

- Breadfruit (which is now becoming more scarce)
- Pimento
- Wild bananas, and
- Junketoo (a large nut that was apparently a staple food of survival from very early Maroon history)

Of these, however, it was reported that most of the herbs were getting more difficult to find, except for chinny root and Cerassee which are still quite plentiful. Generally speaking, men are the ones who go into the bush to collect those plants that do not grow fairly close by.

Rural women frequently make chutneys, pimento dram liquor, breadfruit punch, guava jelly, ginger beer and papaya juice with products from the forest. Parrots, baldpate pigeons and wild pigeons were also listed as being birds that are hunted legally (and illegally) mostly by men in many forest reserve areas. However, the hunters are not necessarily always persons from the local community area.

In Jamaica, rural youth are largely associated with the illicit drug trade, particularly the planting of marijuana (ganja) in forest areas. The fact that marijuana is a major income earner does not alone explain why it is cultivated. Poor road conditions in most rural areas mean that farmers often lose a large portion of the value of their produce because of damage incurred during transport. Ganja, on the other hand, is always a damage resistant crop. Even poor rural women take the risk to plant it because of its economic returns. Seizures make the risk greater, but do not eliminate it all together.

One of the characteristics of small farmers in general, but especially those who rely on natural resources for survival is that they are generally risk adverse. However, it must also be recognized that different farm household members may be risk adverse in different ways. Understanding these differences can help to clarify how specific rural households, and members within these households, may use natural resources differently and hence, will need to play different roles in biodiversity and natural resource protection.

Understanding gender roles in farming systems is therefore important for developing strategies to prevent biodiversity loss. Women's exclusion from environmental management could have negative impacts at both household and community levels.

In some instances, production of "own seed" crops is done without the use of chemical fertilizers because fertilizers are felt to "*make the food rotten faster*". As an alternative, chicken manure and other compost materials are applied to restore soil fertility prior to planting. In other instances, the use of green mulch is still used as a soil fertility measure.

In some poorer communities, planting material for many crops is saved rather than commercially purchased, such as:

- Yam
- Dasheen
- Pumpkin
- Sweet potato
- Scotch bonnet pepper
- Yampies
- Coco
- Callallo
- Okra
- Chocho
- Breadfruit (however this is dying out on a large scale within the CC)

- Banana
- Oranges
- Coffee
- Limes and
- Tangerines

Some poorer farm families also make use of biodiversity for livestock care. Interviews with respondents have revealed that wild tamarind pods and other pods from a variety of leguminous bushes are collected to supplement the scraps and plant trash that are fed to pigs rather than purchasing expensive imported pig feed.

An examination of who does what with respect to farming tasks also reveals important insights into ways in which biodiversity and natural resources can be protected. In most horticultural societies, weed control was traditionally dominated by women. Globally, as agriculture has become more complex however, forms of weed control evolved and changed. In Jamaica, women are responsible for most of the mundane and less prestigious agricultural tasks, one of which is weeding. The process of weeding and selection of weeds has implications for biodiversity. Defining a particular plant as a weed means that it must be eliminated in order to restore order, to ensure the fertility of the soil, to protect the growth of the plants that are desired rather than the plants that are unwanted. As those responsible for weeding in traditional small agriculture, women are the ones who decide which plants stay and which plants get pulled. In short, which biodiversity is eliminated from the production process and which is allowed to stay. Understanding gender roles in agricultural biodiversity is also important in the design of any agricultural activities that will be proposed for R2RW.

At the same time, it is important to note that it is generally men who spray pesticides and who are responsible for the use of agricultural chemicals. They may therefore be more at risk from the use of these substances.

Associated with gender differences in the use of natural resources are gender differences related to the indigenous or traditional knowledge associated with natural resources. In Jamaica, the traditional indigenous knowledge of rural families is also highly gender differentiated. This is especially so among the Maroon communities who have extensive knowledge of herbal plants and remedies. Most older folk in rural areas can readily make distinctions between “man’s bush” and “women’s bush”, when asked what herbs they use for medicinal purposes. The following were mentioned to be of specific importance in the John Crow and Blue Mountain park:

- Eucalyptus
- Peppermint
- Jack in a bush
- Fever grass
- Comfrey
- Chinny weed
- Akuako bush.

Encouraging more sustainable use of natural resources is fundamentally an educational process that includes changes in attitudes and beliefs. Likewise, seeking gender equity also involves attitudinal changes and changes in values and power relations. In Jamaica, attitudes and beliefs around what are appropriate gender roles is very, very strong. One only has to review a sample of traditional proverbs and expressions, which Llewellyn (1991) describes as being “a powerful form of informal social control.” (*Interestingly, many of these also use reference to natural resources*):

- W'en yu cawn fight bushman, tek weh 'im bush. (when you can't fight the bushman take away his bush)
- Drizzle-drizzle laka contentious ooman. (Drizzling rain is like a contentious woman)
- Man an' dawg mek fe roam. Ooman an'puss fe stay a home.
- Ooman ceitful laka star-apple leaf.
- Ooman rain nebber done.
- Distress mek ooman ketch dawg flea two time.
- W'en yu se ole ooman run, no ax wha' appen, run to.
- De three wuss tings a ooman tounge, wass-wass an' tambrin tree (the three worst things are a woman's tongue, wasps and tamarind trees)

Because gender is related to cultural attitudes and beliefs within a society, R2RW will need to be clear on what the prevalent cultural attitudes are within the watershed regarding both the environment and gender if it is to develop effective educational programs and also effective gender strategies.

6. EMERGING GENDER ISSUES

The above account has tried to illustrate that environmental issues will also be gender differentiated. Men, women, and youth – while all depending on sustainable natural resources – may in fact use these resources differently and have different levels of access to and control over them. The differences, and the trade-offs made, are what is important for the project to consider, particularly when conflicting or competing interests may emerge.

For example, in a Jamaican forestry gender study¹⁰, respondents reported a substantial connection between poor water supply and the cutting down of trees to promote monoculture coffee production. The springs that they had relied on for years were running dry and people complained of chemicals in the water. Not only were the supplies of water low in the Pencar/Buff bay area, but residents complained that the use of chemicals by coffee farms, many of them banned in developed countries, polluted the river and creates additional health problems, skin rashes, hair loss, headaches and itching. The impact of this situation was great considering that according to estimates some 29% to 39% of residents across the watershed obtained their water supplies directly from rivers or streams. Their domestic work such as washing in rivers, meant that these rural women have a greater degree of contact with contaminated water, and therefore faced a greater risk of water-borne infection than rural men. Family health concerns were therefore the trade-off for increasing household income from coffee. This example illustrates how the introduction or expansion of an export crop can have an adverse impact on some household members.

According to this same forestry report, the land use changes in the Pencar/Buff Bay watershed areas have had the sharpest effects on women, because of their gender interests in issues of

¹⁰ Vassell, Linnette. September 1997. Gender and Forestry Study. Paper Prepared for the Forestry Department, Ministry of Agriculture and Mining and the Canadian International Development Agency., Kingston.

food security. Across all areas of the Pencar/Buff Bay watershed, 40% of the labour force is employed in small peasant farming, with women mainly involved in the related area of higglering. However, this traditional occupation for women has virtually disappeared in the coffee monoculture area where 43% of women are now dependent on wage labour, and 40% in permanent or seasonal employment on coffee farms. Fifty (50%) of young men (35 years and less) and 28% of older men work on coffee farms. Women, more than men, mainly because of health reasons and the accompanying hard and boring work, are more likely to leave employment in coffee.

Overall, research in Jamaica shows that:

- Inflationary trends have had the impact of driving more and more men, women, and youth into the informal sector. In the case of men and women, more persons will want to combine some cash-earning endeavour with their traditional agricultural roles.
- Women's and youth's access to land is mainly through men - male spouses or male relatives. Thus access to family land is especially important to both groups, especially FHHs and unemployed youth. It is mainly women and youth who squat, rent, lease and sharecrop land controlled by men, or are simply allowed to work the land at the discretion of men, usually in exchange for services, for example providing food, helping the men with work on their land and looking after their common children single-handedly. This may be especially true in high tourism areas.
- Although women do not own the land, day to day farm management and maintenance are often left to them. Men decide what to plant, but women bear much of the burden of responsibility for everyday farm management and day-to-day decisions.
- Women's food production is crucial to food security, family nutrition and well being. However, this work remains invisible in the scramble for foreign exchange through export agriculture.
- The contribution and potential of Jamaican women in agricultural production, food distribution and family nutrition is crucial, yet their very survival is threatened by misconceived national and global restructuring policies.
- Tasks done by women are regarded as less physically demanding, but requiring greater care and skill (picking, weeding). They are also less valued.
- Tasks which require technical knowledge and skills (such as applying fertilisers) are generally done by men.
- For poor women, environmental recovery – clean water, clean air, sewage disposal, trash recycling, and efficient public transportation – are closely linked to health, nutrition and quality of life
- Women's livelihoods are intimately linked to natural resources, especially if they live in rural areas.
- Women's exclusion from environmental management can have negative impacts at both household and community levels.

What can we determine ***Are Likely to be the Environmental Gender Issues for R2RW?*** Based on the above discussion, the following issues may be of substantial significance, but their level of priority will need to be determined with the project's strategic partners:

1. Water (both for domestic use and for irrigation/farming purposes)

2. Land tenure
3. Competing land interests
4. Access to appropriate labour saving technologies
5. Improper use of farm chemicals
6. Biodiversity protection
7. Agricultural biodiversity
8. Use of forest resources
9. Household energy use
10. Household waste
11. Environmental family health

7. GENDER PROGRAMS IN JAMAICA

With this general background presented, R2RW also needs to consider how its activities may correspond with other gender initiatives that are currently on-going. These main initiatives are now discussed.

7.1 PIOJ's Gender Equity Mechanism

The PIOJ has recently finalized a set of planning, monitoring and evaluation instruments for achieving gender equity in all GOJ programs. To date though, existing projects and programs are not yet using the Gender Equity Mechanism (GEM) but it is expected that all projects will eventually be required to use the GEM in their planning and design and in their implementation and will be evaluated accordingly. It is therefore the most critical mechanism for the project to consider.

As a tool, the GEM considers the following indicators as important:

Quantitative Indicators

1. Education, training, knowledge, skills and information
2. Household headship
3. Labour force participation, employment and unemployment rates, wages
4. Poverty index levels
5. Time use
6. Health (hypertension, diabetes, nutrition levels, etc.)

Qualitative Indicators

1. Environmental practices, including gender roles
2. Participation in decision-making
3. Availability of support for services
4. Social costs to health, time use from adjustments to project or economic environment
5. Improvements in social capital
6. Improvements in support services and support mechanisms
7. Level of domestic violence
8. Level of social violence
9. Changes in community power structure

Specifically, the GEM could be a very important tool for establishing the baseline situation in the communities where R2R will be working. It is essential that both ***qualitative*** and ***quantitative*** data be gathered at the beginning of the project in order to gain both a contextual analysis for the

project and to also develop a project design that can address gender equity and measures for ensuring gender fairness in all of the project activities. Use of the GEM will therefore enable the project to be monitored and evaluated in such a way that comparative analysis can be conducted for other PIOJ projects as well. It will also be important to establish **process** indicators for determining how the R2R is encouraging gender equity through project management and implementation.

As has been stated, the project interventions will be developed through a participatory process that is conducted with the communities and stakeholders to be involved. However, all of these interventions will have to be designed in such a way that gender equity is addressed. Using the GEM will facilitate this process in the design phase. It will also help the project to establish appropriate indicators with the communities for assessing project outcomes.

Some constraints to the GEM:

At the same time, it is important to recognize that there are a number of considerations for using the GEM effectively. These are discussed as follows:

- The GEM does not sufficiently define gender as dealing with men and women, as well as youth and older folk. The R2R may find, for instance, that rural youth (young men) are more disadvantaged environmentally than are women. A true gender equity approach would therefore give this group priority attention and create more equitable opportunities for their participation, even though they are not women.
- There also has to be recognition that the goals of gender equity may not always be compatible with environmental protection and good environmental stewardship. In some cases they may be, but in other cases, there may be conflict. The prioritization of goals and objectives will need to be negotiated through a participatory process should this type of situation arise. For this reason, the indicators that the project will use for assessing gender equity and environmental protection will need to be set not only at the national level but also at the community level and at the household level as well.
- The Gender Equity approach (as presented in the PIOJ document) – while acknowledging that women definitely do need greater access to opportunities and benefits in projects, does not pay sufficient attention to the level of “responsibility” that is associated with these rights and benefits. “Rights” have to be balanced with responsibility toward the environment and with environmental stewardship.
- The project will not be able to do all of the work that the Gender Equity framework requires as some of the components are the responsibility of other social divisions such as the Social Development Commission. The GEM will therefore need to be adapted to fit the specific mandate of the R2RW. Alternatively, R2RW may see fit to develop its own checklist for use in project development and monitoring. Nevertheless, the R2RW will need to establish mechanisms for working with these other departments, particularly to achieve strategic gender goals.

Also, because the R2RW is primarily a watershed and environmental project, gender equity will need to be understood in this more detailed, specific context. The GEM as it is presented, is quite broad and general because it is designed for all GOJ projects. To ensure that appropriate linkages are made between gender equity and the watershed environment, and to ensure that R2RW project does not lose its focus nor promise more than it can deliver, it is critical that R2RW concentrates on achieving specific gender equity goals as they relate to environmental stewardship, while also being sensitive to overall national goals for gender equity. Partnerships will need to be found to achieve this objective.

7.2 Bureau of Women's Affairs (Ministry of Labour, Social Security and Sport) Strategic Corporate Plan: 1997-2000

The Bureau of Women's Affairs is the official Government of Jamaica mechanism for women. The mission of the Bureau of Women's Affairs is to enable women to achieve their full potential as participants in Jamaica's social, cultural, political and economic development and with equitable access to and benefits from the country's resources.

The program objectives of the BWA are as follows:

- To develop and implement programs to reduce poverty and domestic violence among women, linked to the country's Poverty Eradication program and international conventions.
- To assist in mainstreaming gender in the public sector in order to strategically maximize the contribution of women and men to Jamaican national development, and to help empower women through government policies and programs.

The BWA is working in both watersheds and specifically works through partnerships with other agencies such as SDC, RADA and NGOs.

The BWA will need to be a very important strategic partner in the project, particularly at the national training level.

7.3 The Gender Equity Fund (GEF)

The Gender Equity Fund was established by CIDA to strengthen civil society organizations and government bodies involved in strategic interventions aimed at promoting Women in Development (WID)/Gender Equity and provides grants to:

- Government Agencies
- CBOs
- Educational & Research Institutions
- Umbrella Associations and Member Organizations
- Official Women's Machinery & Regional Organizations.

Projects must reflect:

- Efforts to increase knowledge of, commitment to and action, on the goals and objectives that address Gender and Social Equity.
- It must illustrate that it support efforts to create a political and social environment where all men and women have equal access to positions of power and decision-making.
- To develop gender analysis skills in both men and women in the development and design of policies, programs and projects.
- To promote gender mainstreaming and prevent violence against women

The GEF also offers an opportunity for R2RW to work with communities to leverage funding for project activities.

7.4 ENACT's Gender Strategy

In 1999, ENACT designed a gender strategy to pursue gender equity within ENACT programming. Training was done with staff at NRCA in the development of the strategy as well. A great deal of work was done in the preparation of the ENACT contextual analysis and in the strategy and therefore, there is not a lot that R2RW will need to repeat in the preparation of its own gender strategies. However, the ENACT strategy does not include an approach for involving RADA and the FD. This is something that R2RW will need to do.

7.5 IICA's Rural Women's Network & Small Credit Scheme

IICA's regional strategy, over the 1990s, has been to include a gender perspective into its rural development programs. In Jamaica, this objective focused on the creation on a strategy for strengthening micro-enterprise among rural women, primarily through information networks. IICA/Jamaica recognised that there are now many different programmes focused on micro-enterprise development within the country, but that these are not necessarily focused on activities related to agricultural production or agro-processing even though opportunities exist in these sectors. On the other side of the equation, rural women don't have access to the information, training and credit that is needed to enable them to become micro-entrepreneurs in these sectors. There has been a series of missing links between what is available in micro-enterprise training; credit facilities; agricultural; technology development – and rural women.

IICA has therefore established a Rural Women's Network to help link agencies working in technology development; credit; small business training; agro-processing; and agriculture – with the rural women and their families who need these skills and information.

The RWN is very close to being certified as a legal entity. As such, it would qualify for USAID grant fund lending status. The network has in fact established a revolving credit scheme with the equivalent of \$US 90,000.00 that is presently managed through the PC Banks. A network committee reviews and approves loan proposals put forward by either individual women or women's groups, but the PCBs administer the funds. R2RW could support this initiative in its two pilot watersheds as it would complement its own grant fund activities very nicely.

7.6 RADA

RADA's Social Services division focuses on programs for rural women and concentrates primarily on agro-processing and the delivery of traditional home economic services. A "Farm Family" approach is pursued and it is assumed that this approach adequately addresses gender issues, however it is more in line with a WID approach to development than a gender approach.

It is not the mandate of R2RW to encourage the institutionalization of gender considerations within RADA. However, R2RW will need to find mechanisms for ensuring that its practical, field level work with RADA is gender sensitive. This can best be encouraged in partnership with the NRCA/NEPA, FD, SDC and BWA.

7.7 Forestry Department

Another key partner in the R2RW process is the Forestry Department. Fortunately, the FD is currently in the process of finalizing its own gender strategy for institutional strengthening and will be adopting an empowerment approach to do so. The new draft Forestry gender strategy now has a great deal of significance for R2RW. Like the R2RW project, the Trees for Tomorrow (TFT) project (which has funded the preparation of the FD gender strategy) is not in itself a "gender project". Nor is its mandate to "influence gender equity in society as a whole,"¹¹ but it has been entrusted with the institutional strengthening of the FD and thus is addressing gender issues.

¹¹ Dorianne Rowan- Campbell. December 2000. Trees for Tomorrow. Phase II. Gender Equity Strategy. Forestry

Even though the FD is a department within the MOA, the draft strategy highlights a concern that the MOA “has not really ever taken gender issues seriously”. Within the MOA, there is an acknowledgement that rural women are disadvantaged due to land tenure and credit difficulties, but issues around family decision-making power and social power are not addressed nor acknowledged. This, therefore,

“will seriously constrain the FD’s ability to implement a gender strategy as their key field partners such as RADA and their management peers possess little of this optic.”¹²

This same conclusion will also hold true for R2RW in its watershed efforts as it too will have to work closely with RADA and the MOA.

There are a number of recommendations included in the FD strategy that could be supported and complemented by R2RW mandate. For example, R2RW could assist in extending the training that the strategy proposes to both RADA and the SDC as well as to other strategic partners in both watersheds. These specific ideas include:

- Ensuring that images, articles and materials, enhance the message of gender equity.
- Developing clauses for MOUs with partner organisations to address gender equity.
- Support national and regional workshop on gender and conflict resolution.
- Training of trainers to include gender perspective.
- Support the integration of gender equity approaches into the Forestry Field Skills Training Programme.
- Development of orientation material on Gender Equity priorities for forestry use with partner organisations, funding agencies and government ministries.
- Training sessions to reinforce learning and practice.
- Developing a replicable model of the skills, systems and participatory processes required for community forestry to include gender considerations.
- Specific outreach to young men who pose a threat to conservation.
- Specific outreach to enable women to share more equitably in socio-economic improvement.
- Training in gender sensitive PRA and RRA techniques for field staff.

8. USAID’S GENDER APPROACH

USAID’s approach to gender and development evolved out of the WID framework, as did that of most donors¹³. In review, USAID has noted a number of conditions that are critical in an overall approach to gender equality. These conditions will also be critical for R2RW to consider:

Department, Kingston.

¹² op cit.

¹³ Advisory Committee on Voluntary Foreign Aid (ACVFA) Members. April 2000. *New Agenda for Gender Equality*. Draft Paper for Discussion. www.usaid.gov

9. CONSIDERATIONS FOR MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Achieving gender equity also requires the setting of appropriate indicators to monitor progress,¹⁴ but the setting of indicators is not usually an easy task. “Indicators must reflect the local social and cultural context within which the project operates.” The time frame within which the project is to be implemented must also be realistic.

Ideally, indicators should be established through a participatory process with project partners and stakeholders.

There are usually three types of *indicators used to measure* impact related to gender:

- **Head counts:** the number or percent of men and women who: participate in project activities; are members of local organisations; perform specific roles and functions; etc.
- **Type of benefit:** the number or percent of men and women who received titles, project benefits, jobs, and so forth.
- **Average benefit by gender:** differences in benefits for FHHs versus MHHs.

¹⁴ Grieser, Mona and Barbara Rawlins. Chapter 4: Gender Matters. Environmental Education and Communication for a Sustainable World - In Handbook for International Practitioners. www.usaid.gov

Some related indicators that R2RW will need to determine in conjunction with its strategic partners are now reviewed:

Impact Evaluation:

1. Impact on Gender Equity

- How has the project increased the involvement of vulnerable groups (women, youth, etc.) in decision-making within their households and community?
- Has the project improved their access to, and control over, social services, environmental resources, or infrastructure services? What new resources/services are available to them?
- What impact has the project had on relationships between men and women?
- Has the project had any influence on the gender-based division of labour? Has it increased or decreased their workload?
- Are there direct economic benefits for women and other vulnerable groups resulting from their participation, or the participation of men in the project? Are the benefits reaped by men and women comparable?

2. Policy-Related Impact

- What gender-sensitive procedures and policies have been learned and adopted by local governmental officials and partners?

3. Influence on Local Capacity and Human Capital

- Has the number of beneficiaries participating in local organisations increased?
- Has women's attendance/involvement increased or are they serving as proxies for their husbands?
- Has the number of women and youth serving as officers in participating organisations during project implementation increased?
- Has the number of women and youth in participating organisations who received technical or managerial training increased?

4. Changes in Environmental Knowledge, Attitudes, Beliefs and Practices

- To what extent has the project impacted environmental knowledge differently by gender?
- To what extent has the project impacted environmental attitudes and beliefs differently by gender?
- To what extent has the project impacted environmental practices by gender?

5. Implications for the Environment and Livelihoods

- Has the project enhanced men's and women's roles as environmental managers?

- What impact has this had on project participants' access to natural resources and sources of income?

These considerations need to be included in the design of all sub-projects within the R2RW project.

10. SOME SUBJECTS FOR GENDER RESEARCH IN THE WATERSHEDS

In addition to considering possible appropriate technologies for implementation, some further research may also be needed in order to develop appropriate gender strategies for each watershed. Research may be needed on the following questions, for example:

1. There was talk of recycling the diothene banana sleeves? Who would need to be involved in that work? Who would collect them from the field? What risks are associated with recycling? Who is collecting, washing out and re-using the plastic bags used for banana packing? What happens with these materials?
2. Agro-processing is frequently identified as “women’s work” and a way to add value to agricultural projects while also providing jobs for women. In Millbank, however – the banana chip factory is owned by a man and staffed by women workers. The conditions did not seem to be that environmentally safe. What are the women paid? Evidence shows that most agro-processing projects are first started by women, but then when they become successful, they are frequently taken over by men – often because the men control the marketing of the products.
3. The indigenous knowledge surrounding herbal medicines, especially among the Maroons, is also gender differentiated. How is PEPA’s USAID-funded herbal medicines project considering gender differences?
4. The existing watershed videos (produced by NEPA and the NECC) suggest that small farmers should “tie” their animals, particularly their goats, rather than let the animals defecate anywhere and pollute the streams. However, who really owns the animals and is tying them always viable, in terms of household labour.
5. In the Mafoota, St. James project, how many of the farmers are women? How are decisions now made?
6. Domestic charcoal use is now felt to be on the decline, but it is expected that commercial charcoal use is increasing – especially among sellers of jerk chicken and pork. What gender-related activities are associated with the production, selling and using of charcoal in this industry? What is the gender composition of households that still use charcoal for household fuel? What is the reason for their continued use?

11. RECOMMENDATIONS TOWARDS A GENDER STRATEGY FOR R2RW

Specific gender strategies for each watershed will be developed in conjunction with the project's partners once the actual project activities are fully identified and agreed to. However, the

¹⁵ Grieser, Mona and Barbara Rawlins. *Environmental Education and Communication for a Sustainable World: Hand for International Practitioners*. USAID.

following guidelines and recommendations should help to make this process more relevant for the project:

Develop an Appropriate Gender Equity Tool

- R2RW should consider the GEM and other indicators/checklists with a view to developing its own tool for use with strategic partners in the development of sub-project activities in each watershed. This tool should be developed in conjunction with project stakeholders and key partners and tested in the field before being introduced on a wide basis.

Build Consensus for Gender Sensitivity with Key Partners

- Common issues need to be identified around which project activities can be developed. Building consensus takes time, but saves money and energy later on.
- Once specific project activities are identified, gender sensitization should be done in the sub-project preparation phase.
- The R2RW gender approach should forge partnerships to link gender needs in the NEPA, the FD, RADA, and the SDC and support work of other projects, such as TFT and ENACT
- The project will need to identify and address “practical gender needs” first (through the intervention of TAPS), but will also need to work to address “strategic gender needs” over time.
- Wherever possible, the link between environmental issues and both practical and strategic gender needs must be made clearly visible.

Research

- Conduct baseline survey's (using participatory and quantitative techniques) to provide original gender disaggregated information on natural resource use in the watersheds

Interventions and TAPs

- R2RW is a demand driven project. But in setting priorities with strategic partners and stakeholder, ideally it is best to begin with resource issues for which there is likely to be gender, class and age consensus in terms of its importance – such as water and rural sanitation. The project should seek to gain successes on common issues first, and then explore issues that may require more difficult gender negotiations.
- All illustrative activities need to consider gender explicitly.

Training

- Provide training for SDC, FD, RADA, partner ENGOs and NEPA in gender analysis and why it is important – at field level primarily. Support the proposals in the TFT gender strategy. Support other initiatives that are seeking to create senior level training.
- Training efforts, especially at the community level, must also be respectful of the private nature of gender relations within the family household. Educational processes should not be personal, but general and should use techniques such as participatory drama and humour– to elicit underlying gender patterns in decision making that affect resource use without threatening personal relationships.

Grant Fund Leveraging

- The project should work in partnership with the CIDA Gender Equity Fund to possibly propose gender mainstreaming initiatives for the project that go beyond the mandate of R2RW
- Leveraging of grant funds should be sought with CIDA/GEF. Collaboration with the IICA's Rural Womens' Network Revolving Credit scheme should also be explored.

Project Management

- A gender-working group for the project should be considered and should be inter-disciplinary in nature.
- Specific gender indicators should be established during the design phase of sub-projects and monitored accordingly.

12. CONCLUSION

This report has endeavoured to inform the R2RW project by providing enough “fodder” for thought in the form of a background review of realities associated with gender and natural resource management in Jamaica.

The review reiterates following main conclusions:

- Gender considerations are not only sensible for project success, they are now mandatory;
- As long as women (and men) remain poor, fragile ecosystems will remain at risk.
- R2RW should develop, and test, its own checklist for the preparation of sub-project proposals and for implementation and monitoring.
- R2RW cannot implement all of the activities that will be required to ensure gender sensitivity, nor should it try. It is not a gender project primarily. Therefore, strategic gender issues especially will need to be addressed in partnership with the BWA and other organizations.
- Doing gender sensitive work is complex and requires partnerships in order to be effective
- Commitment to gender sensitive development must first be built at the top if it is to succeed at the local watershed level
- Practical and immediate gender needs must be addressed first, but strategic needs must also be incorporated into project activities through partnerships
- There are wonderful initiatives (the FD in particular) that offer opportunities for R2RW to collaborate in fulfilling its own gender obligations.

As the project enters into its strategic partnerships and determines what activities it will actually implement, these guidelines and recommendations will hopefully help to ensure that it is gender sensitive as it does so.

TABLES

Table No. 1 Ranking of Poorest Communities in Quartile 4 Source: Policy Development Unit, PIOJ. Poverty Mapping: A Report of the Spatial Representation of Deprivation in Jamaica, March 1996		
Community	Parish	Ranking
<i>Ginger House</i>	<i>Portland</i>	484.23
Windsor	St. Elizabeth	389.95
<i>Rock Hall</i>	<i>Portland</i>	<i>340.82</i>
<i>Mocho</i>	<i>St. James</i>	<i>336.51</i>
Richmond Vale	St. Thomas	332.97
<i>Cold Spring</i>	<i>Hanover</i>	<i>324.90</i>
Sligoville	St. Catherine	322.88
Sawyers	Trelawny	319.14
Top Hill	Manchester	317.17
Braes River	St. Elizabeth	310.98
Junction	St. Elizabeth	307.63
Windsor Castle	St. Mary	303.34
Troja	St. Catherine	302.03

Table No. 2 Percentage Distribution of Households in Poverty, By Parish JSLC 1990 to 1998		
Parish	Poverty Levels	
	1992	1999
Kingston	17.1	12.6
St. Andrew	19.8	7.7
St. Thomas	37.1	9.4
Portland	50.3	18.3
St. Mary	35.4	38.2
St. Ann	36.5	22.5
Trelawny	15.4	18.3
St. James	27.9	8.9
Hanover	52.4	13.3
Westmoreland	51.7	33.3
St. Elizabeth	47.2	18.4
Manchester	44.6	11.7
Clarendon	42.2	13.3
St. Catherine	28.2	8.2
JAMAICA	35.2	15.9

Table No. 3 Employment, Unemployment by Gender JSLC 1990 to 1998									
REGION	Employed			Unemployed			Outside Labour Force		
	Male	Female	Jamaica	Male	Female	Jamaica	Male	Female	Jamaica
KMA	69.4	49.5	57.8	8.3	7.9	8.1	22.2	42.6	34.1
Other Towns	59.2	55.5	56.9	10.5	16.0	13.9	30/3	28.6	29.2
Rural Areas	65.2	56.1	61.1	8.6	11.1	9.7	26.3	32.8	29.2
Jamaica	65.0	54.9	60.0	8.8	11.5	10.1	26.3	33.6	29.9

Table Number 4 Mean per Capita Consumption by Gender of Household Head – JSLC 1998-1999 JSLC, 1999						
Gender of Household Head	Mean Per Capita Consumption (\$)		Mean Food Expenditure (\$)		Food as a Percent of Total	
	1998	1999	1998	1999	1998	1999
MALE	71565	76968	36003	36211	50.3	47.1
Female	61748	61807	31233	29928	50.6	48.4

Table No. 5 Household Composition by Sex of Household Head, By Quintile 1998 JSLC 1990 to 1998										
	SEX OF HOUSEHOLD HEAD									
	MALE					FEMALE				
	Household Members Analyzed (N)	Mean total size	Mean No. of Adult Males	Mean No. of adult females	Mean No. of Children	Household Members Analyzed (N)	Mean total size	Mean No. of Adult Males	Mean No. of adult females	Mean No. of Children
Quintile										
Poorest	2522	4.99	1.61	1.31	2.07	2777	5.25	1.10	1.78	2.36
2	2711	4.57	1.59	1.30	1.68	2593	4.94	1.01	1.85	2.08
3	2900	3.96	1.53	1.15	1.29	2402	4.18	.90	1.69	1.58
4	2796	3.11	1.40	.85	.86	2507	3.56	.75	1.60	1.21
5	3210	2.19	1.21	.58	0.41	2090	2.46	.49	1.39	0.59
Jamaica	14139	3.34	1.40	.93	1.01	12369	3.85	.79	1.65	1.41

Table No. 6
Percentage Distribution of Households by Household Size, by Area, Quintile and Sex of Household Head, 1998
JSLC 1990 to 1998

Classification	Households Analyzed (N)	Household Size								Total
AREA		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8+	
KMA	1870									100.00
Other Towns	1319	21.3	17.6	17.0	15.3	11.4	6.6	4.1	6.7	100.00
Rural Areas	4186	22.8	15.7	14.1	14.4	10.7	8.4	5.4	8.5	100.00
QUINTILE										
Poorest	1034	9.3	9.2	12.0	14.7	13.7	12.5	10.2	18.5	100.00
2	1118	11.2	11.6	14.9	15.0	14.4	9.8	8.8	14.4	100.00
3	1307	13.9	14.4	16.5	17.8	14.4	9.6	5.6	7.8	100.00
4	1603	20.3	19.2	19.3	17.2	11.4	6.4	3.0	3.1	100.00
5	2313	42.2	23.7	14.2	10.8	4.9	2.2	1.0	1.0	100.00
Sex of Household Head										
Male	4193	27.8	17.2	14.8	14.1	9.8	6.5	3.9	5.9	100.00
Female	3182	16.0	19.1	17.5	15.6	11.5	7.2	5.0	8.2	100.00
Jamaica	7375	22.7	18.0	16.0	14.7	10.5	6.8	4.4	6.9	100.00

Table No. 7 Percentage Distribution of Households by Distance from Public Water Source, Area and Quintile, 1997 STATIN and Planning Institute of Jamaica. October 1998. <u>Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions: 1997</u> . Kingston.							
Classification	Analyzed	0-49 yds	50-199 yards	200-499 yards	500-999 yards	1000+ yards	Total
KMA							
Public Standpipe	7	42.9	42.0	15.1	0.0	0.0	100
River/Lake/Spring/Pond	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other Towns							
Public Standpipe	49	56.1	22.4	7.5	7.6	6.4	100.00
River/Lake/Spring/Pond	2	100	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.00
Rural Areas							
Public Standpipe	243	35.1	17.4	20.1	13.9	13.4	100.00
River/Lake/Spring/Pond	81	18.1	8.3	25.5	19.2	28.8	100.00
Poorest Quintile							
Public standpipe	87	46.0	16.1	16.1	14.9	6.9	100.00
River/Lake/Spring/Pond	27	18.5	11.1	33.3	22.2	14.8	100.00
Quintile 2							
Public standpipe	75	37.3	21.3	14.7	9.3	17.3	100.00
River/Lake/Spring/Pond	15	26.7	0.0	26.7	26.7	20.0	100.00
Quintile 3							
Public standpipe	53	24.5	20.8	28.3	11.3	15.1	100.00
River/Lake/Spring/Pond	20	10.0	5.0	10.0	20.0	55.0	100.00
Quintile 4							
Public standpipe	59	33.9	17.0	20.3	17.0	11.9	100.00
River/Lake/Spring/Pond	5	20.0	0.0	40.0	0.0	40.0	100.00
Quintile 5							
Public standpipe	25	52.0	24.0	12.0	4.9	8.0	100.00
River/Lake/Spring/Pond	16	25.0	18.8	18.8	12.5	25.0	100.00
Jamaica as a Whole							
Public standpipe	299	38.8	18.9	17.9	12.5	11.9	100.00
River/Lake/Spring/Pond	83	19.8	8.1	25.0	18.8	28.2	100.00

Table No. 8 Percentage Distribution of Dwellings by Source of Drinking Water by Region and Quintile, 1998 JSLC 1990 to 1998								
Area and Quintile	Indoor Tap/pipe	Outside Private Tap/pipe	Public Standpipe	Well	River, lake, spring or pond	Rainwater (Tank)	Other	All Types
Region								
KMA	67.3	29.3	2.9	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.7	100.0
Other Towns	49.4	28.9	14.0	0.2	0.2	5.0	2.5	100.0
Rural	21.0	17.2	23.4	0.4	8.9	25.5	3.6	100.0
Quintile								100.0
Poorest	8.7	26.7	29.1	0.7	11.4	17.9	5.5	100.0
2	19.6	27.4	23.9	0.5	7.5	17.3	3.9	100.0
3	30.3	25.6	18.5	0.2	6.1	16.2	3.1	100.0
4	38.1	23.8	16.0	0.3	3.9	15.6	2.4	100.0
5	57.6	20.1	8.8	0.1	2.3	10.1	1.0	100.0
Jamaica	42.3	23.4	14.2	0.2	4.4	13.1	2.4	100.0

Table No. 9 Distribution of Private Households by Source of Water Supply: 1991 Source: 1991 Census, STATIN, Kingston								
Source of Water Supply	St. James		Hanover		Westmoreland		Portland	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Public								
Piped into Dwelling	12205	32.2	484 ²	14.3	4367	12.9	4915	24.1
Piped into yard	7750	20.4	2243	12.9	5937	17.6	4521	22.2
Private								
Piped into Dwelling	2007	5.3	673	3.9	2091	6.2	854	4.2
Not Piped Catchment	1042	2.7	1105	6.3	6465	19.1	638	3.1
Public Standpipe	10180	26.8	7654	43.9	9875	29.2	5718	28.1
Public tank	498	1.3	178	1.0	954	2.8	155	0.8
Spring or River	3254	8.6	2549	14.7	2445	7.3	2896	14.2
Other	1002	2.7	531	3.0	1660	4.9	685	3.3
TOTAL	37938	100.0	17,417	100.00	33794	100.00	20382	100.0

Table No. 10 Percentage Distribution of Toilet Facilities Used by the Poor JSLC 1990 to 1998									
<i>Toilet Facility</i>	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
WC/Sewer	12.5	9.4	6.9	9.4	-	9.6	12.6	7.9	6.3
WC/no sewer	10.5	12.7	13.4	10.2	-	12.9	14.1	13.6	15.7
Pit	75.2	76.2	77.1	74.9	-	75.4	71.6	74.9	72.3
Other	0.1	0.1	0.7	2.1	-	0.7	-	0.8	3.4
None	1.7	1.6	1.9	3.4	-	1.4	1.7	2.8	2.3
Total	100	100	100	100	-	100	100	100	100

Table No. 11
Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of Toilet Facility and Quintile, 1998
JSLC 1990 to 1998

Type of toilet Facility	Poorest		Quintile 2		Quintile 3		Quintile 4		Quintile 4	
	Households with facility	Households having Exclusive Use	Households with facility	Households having Exclusive Use	Households with facility	Households having Exclusive Use	Households with facility	Households having Exclusive Use	Households with facility	Households having Exclusive Use
WC linked to sewer	5.9	4.0	10.7	7.4	16.5	12.2	19.6	15.8	33.3	27.7
WC not linked to sewer	13.3	10.5	22.2	18.1	29.0	24.2	33.7	28.6	41.0	34.4
Pit latrine	77.2	60.5	66.5	51.6	54.3	42.1	46.3	33.8	25.5	16.6
Other	3.5	2.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0,1
None	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
All types	100.0	77.8	100.0	77.5	100.0	78.8	100.0	78.5	100.0	78.7

Table No. 12 Number of Individual Holders in Jamaica by Gender, Age Group and Size Group of Holdings Census of Agriculture 1996: Preliminary Report. Kingston					STATIN. 1998.
SIZE GROUP OF HOLDINGS	AGE GROUP				
	All Ages	Under 30 Years	30-49 Years	50 Years and Over	
	BOTH SEXES				
TOTAL	179394	27917	69667	81810	
Landless	13243	3350	6189	3704	
Under 5 ha	159386	24106	61448	13833	
5 ha to under 20 ha	5727	426	1696	3605	
20 ha and over	1038	35	335	668	
	MALE				
TOTAL	133314	22437	51616	59261	
Landless	6932	2074	3029	1829	
Under 5 ha	120224	19927	46763	53534	
5 ha to under 20 ha	5233	408	1519	3305	
20 ha and over	926	28	305	593	
	FEMALE				
TOTAL	46080	5480	18051	22549	
Landless	6311	1276	3159	1875	
Under 5 ha	39163	4179	14685	20299	
5 ha to under 20 ha	494	18	176	300	
20 ha and over	113	7	31	75	

Table No. 13 Percentage Distribution of Farms By Size and Tenure ¹⁶ Women Food Producers Survey, Jamaica, 1993								
Size of Farm (ha)	TOTAL	Owned	Rent	Lease	Family Land	Squatting	Joint Ownership	Other
TOTAL	100% (150)	17.3	20	18.7	32.7	3.3	2.0	6.0
<0.4	100% (24)	4.1	16.7	8.3	58.3	12.5	-	-
0.4- <2.0	100% (96)	13.5	22.9	25	28.1	2.1	1.0	7.3
2.0-<4.0	100% (22)	40.9	18.2	4.5	31.8	-	4.5	-
4.0-<10.0	100% (8)	37.5	-	12.5	12.5	-	12.5	25.0

¹⁶ Innerarity, Faith. 1996. Women Food Producers in Jamaica: Assessment and Policies. Program for the Analysis of Agricultural Policies vis-a-vis Women Food Producers in the Andean Region, The Southern Cone and the Caribbean. Inter-American Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture and Inter-American Development Bank. Kingston.

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Ridge to Reef Watershed Project